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ABSTRACT

This manual is designed for use in a workshop on leadership training. A discussion is given on the interaction between individuals that produces change in both personal behavior and gradual changes in organizational structures. Theories are presented on methods of bringing about desired change. The major theory under consideration is that of using the human life cycle as an example of gradual change, from the complete immaturity of the infant to the independent maturity of the adult. It is suggested that developing a style of leadership, similar to the parent-child relationship, that takes into consideration the individual growth and development of workers will lead to successful organizational growth and increased personal job satisfaction. Included in this manual are group activities for increasing decision making skills, a leader effectiveness model, and suggested methods of self analysis for leadership potential. (JD)

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PARTICIPANT'S MANUAL

CONSULTANT TRAINING WORKSHOP

FOR

CHANGE AGENTS

ROCKY MOUNTAIN TEACHER CORPS NETWORK
VERL O. CAZIER, EXECUTIVE SECRETARY

THE FOLLOWING WORKSHOP IS THE RESULT OF TWO WORKSHOPS
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LEVELS OF CHANGE

There are four levels of change: (1) knowledge changes, (2) attitudinal changes, (3) individual behavior changes, and (4) group or organizational performance changes.

Changes in knowledge tend to be the easiest to make; all one has to do is give a person a book or an article to read, or have someone whom he respects tell him something new. Attitude structures differ from knowledge structures in that they are emotionally charged in a positive or a negative way. The addition of emotion often makes attitudes more difficult to change than knowledge.

Changes in individual behavior seem to be significantly more difficult and time consuming than either of the two preceding levels. For example, a person may have knowledge about the potential dangers of smoking, may even actually feel that smoking is a bad habit he would like to change, and may still be unable to stop smoking because a habit pattern has been reinforced over a long period of time. It is important to point out that we are talking about change in patterned behavior and not a single event. In our example, anyone can quit smoking for a short period of time; the real test comes months later to see if a new long-term pattern has evolved.

While individual behavior is difficult enough, when we get to the implementation of group or organizational performance, it is compounded because at this level we are concerned with changing customs, mores, and traditions. Being a group it tends to be a self-reinforcing unit, and therefore a person's behavior as a member of a group is more difficult to modify without first changing the group norms.

One of the characteristics of leadership is that leaders exercise power. Amitai Etzioni discusses the difference between position power and personal power. His distinction springs from his concept of power as the ability to induce or influence behavior. He claims that power is derived from an organizational office, personal influence, or both. An individual who is able to induce another individual to do a certain job because of his position in the organization is considered to have position power, while an individual who derives his power from his followers is considered to have personal power. Some individuals can have both position and personal power.

Etzioni postulates that the best situation for a leader is when he has both personal and position power. But in some cases it is not possible to build a relationship on both. Then the question becomes whether it is more important to have personal power or position power. Happiness and human relations have been culturally reinforced over the past several decades. With this emphasis, most people would pick personal power as being the most important. But there may be another side of the coin.

In his fifteenth century treatise <u>The Prince</u>, Machiavelli presents an interesting viewpoint when he raises the question whether it is better to have a relationship based upon love (personal power) or fear (position power). Machiavelli, as Etzioni, contends that it is best to be both loved and feared. If, however, one cannot have both, he suggests that a relationship based on love alone tends to be volatile, short run, and easily terminated when there is no fear of retaliation. On the other hand, Machiavelli contends that a relationship

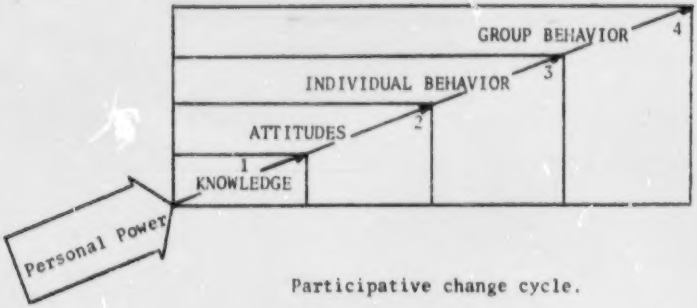
based upon fear tends to be longer lasting in that the individual must be willing to incur the sanction (pay the price) before terminating the relationship. This is a difficult concept for many people to accept, and yet one of the most difficult roles for a leader, whether he be a boss, teacher, or parent, is disciplining someone about whom he cares. Yet to be effective one sometimes has to sacrifice short-term friendship for long-term respect if he is interested in the growth and development of the people with whom he is working. Machiavelli warns, however, that one should be careful that fear does not lead to hatred. For hatred often evokes overt behavior in terms of retaliation, undermining, and attempts to overthrow.

THE CHANGE CYCLES

The levels of change become very significant when we examine two different change cycles--the participative change cycle and the coerced change cycle.

Participative Change

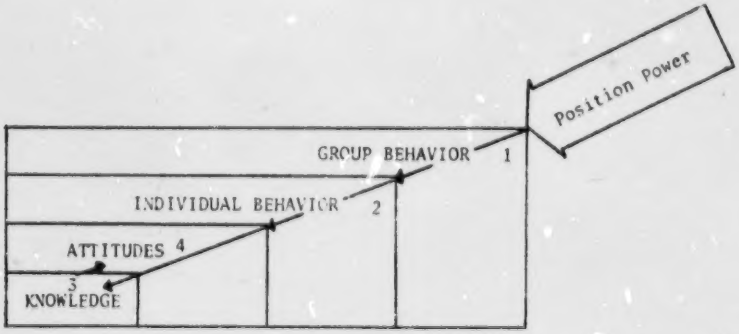
A participative change cycle is implemented when new knowledge is made available to the individual or the group. It is hoped that the group will accept the data and will develop a positive attitude and commitment in the direction of the desired change. At this level the strategy may be direct participation by the individual or the group in helping to select or formalize the goals or the new methods for obtaining the goals. This is group participation in problem solving. The next step is to attempt to translate this commitment into actual behavior. This tends to be the most difficult barrier to overcome. For example, it is one thing to be concerned (attitude) about a social problem but another thing to be willing to actually get involved in doing something (behavior) about the problem. One strategy that is often useful is to attempt to identify informal as well as formal leaders within the group and concentrate on gaining their acceptance and behavior. Once this is accomplished we have moved a long way in getting others in the group to begin to pattern their behavior after those persons whom they respect and perceive in leadership roles. This participative change cycle is illustrated on the following page.



Participative change cycle.

Coerced Change

We have all probably been faced with a situation similar to the one in which there is an announcement on Monday morning that "as of today all members of this organization shall begin to operate in accordance with Form 10125." This is an example of a coerced change cycle. This cycle begins by imposing change on the total organization. This will tend to affect the interaction-influence system at the individual level. The new contacts and modes of behavior create new knowledge which tends to develop predispositions toward or against the change. This coerced change cycle is illustrated in the following figure.



Coerced change cycle.

In some cases, where change is forced, the new behavior which is engaged in creates the kind of knowledge that develops commitment to the change and therefore begins to approximate a participative change cycle as it reinforces the individual and the group behavior.

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE TWO CHANGE CYCLES

In terms of the Life Cycle Theory of Leadership, the participative change cycle tends to be more appropriate for working with mature groups, since they are achievement-motivated and have a degree of knowledge and experience that may be useful in developing new strategies for accomplishing goals. Once the change starts, mature people are much more capable of assuming responsibilities for implementation. On the other hand, with immature people the coerced change cycle may be more productive because they are often dependent and not willing to take new responsibilities unless forced to do so. In fact, by their very nature, these people might prefer direction and structure to being faced with decisions that might be frightening to them.

There are some other significant differences between these two change cycles. The participative change cycle tends to be effective when induced by leaders with personal power, while the coerced cycle necessitates significant position power--rewards, punishments, and sanctions.

With the participative cycle, the main advantage is that once accepted it tends to be long lasting, since the people are highly committed to the change. Its disadvantage is that it tends to be slow and evolutionary. On the other hand, the advantage of the coerced cycle is speed. Using his position power, the leader can often impose change immediately. The disadvantage of this cycle is that it tends to be volatile. It can only be maintained as long as the

leader has position power to make it stick. Even it often results in animosity, hostility, and in some cases overt and covert behavior to undermine and overthrow.

These cycles have been described as if they were either/or positions. In reality it is more a question of the proper blend of each, depending upon the situation.

CHANGE PROCESS

In examining change, Kurt Lewin identified three phases of the change process.

Unfreezing

The aim of unfreezing is to motivate and make the individual or the group ready to change. It is a "thawing out" process where the forces acting on an individual are rearranged so that now he sees the need for change. Basically, it involves creating within an individual a dissatisfaction with his present condition, beliefs, level of knowledge, etc. A high school principal, for example, who wants to move his school from teacher-centered to student-centered classrooms may first have to "unfreeze" teachers, parents, perhaps even students in order for them to accept the change. He might use many methods in this unfreezing phase. Workshops, bulletins, consultants, visitations, etc.--all designed to make them dissatisfied with their present situation and ready for change.

In brief, unfreezing is the breaking down of the mores, customs, and traditions of an individual--the old ways of doing things--so that he is ready to accept new alternatives. In terms of force field analysis, unfreezing may occur when either the driving forces are increased or the restraining forces that are resisting change are reduced.

Changing

Once the individual has become motivated to change, he is ready to be provided with new patterns of behavior. This process is most likely to occur

by one of two mechanisms: identification and internalization. *Identification* occurs when one or more models are provided in the environment, models from whom an individual can learn new behavior patterns by identifying with them and trying to become like them. *Internalization* occurs when an individual is placed in a situation where new behaviors are demanded of him if he is to operate successfully in that situation. He learns these new behavior patterns not only because they are necessary to survive but because of new high strength needs induced by coping behavior.

Internalization is a more common outcome in those influence settings where the direction of change is left more to the individual. The influence which occurs in programs such as Alcoholics Anonymous, in psychotherapy or counseling for hospitalized or incarcerated populations, in religious retreats, in human relations training of the kind pursued by the National Training Laboratories, and in certain kinds of progressive education programs is more likely to occur through internalization or, at least, to lead ultimately to more internalization.

Identification and internalization are not either/or courses of action but effective change is often the result of combining the two into a strategy for change.

Force or compliance is sometimes discussed as another mechanism for inducing change. It occurs when an individual is forced to change by the direct manipulation of rewards and punishment by someone in a power position. In this case, behavior appears to have changed when the change agent is present but is often dropped when supervision is removed. Thus, rather than discuss force as a mechanism of changing, we should think of it as a tool for unfreezing.

Refreezing

The process by which the newly acquired behavior comes to be integrated as patterned behavior into the individual's personality and/or ongoing signifi-

cant emotional relationships is referred to as *refreezing*. If the new behavior has been internalized while being learned, "this has automatically facilitated refreezing because it has been fitted naturally into the individual's personality. If it has been learned through identification, it will persist only so long as the target's relationship with the original influence model persists unless new surrogate models are found or social support and reinforcement is obtained for expressions of the new attitudes."

This highlights how important it is for an individual engaged in a change process to be in an environment that is continually reinforcing the desired change. The effect of many a training program has been short-lived when the person returns to an environment that does not reinforce the new patterns or, even worse, is hostile toward them.

What we are concerned about in refreezing is that the new behavior does not get extinguished over time. To insure this not happening, reinforcement must be scheduled in an effective way. There seem to be two main reinforcement schedules: continuous and intermittent. Continuous reinforcement means that the individual being changed is reinforced every time he engages in the desired new pattern. With intermittent reinforcement either can be completely random or can be scheduled according to a prescribed number of responses occurring or a particular interval of time elapsing before reinforcement is given. With continuous reinforcement, the individual learns the new behavior quickly, but if his environment changes to one of nonreinforcement, extinction can be expected to take place relatively soon. With intermittent reinforcement, extinction is much slower because the individual has been conditioned to go for periods of time without any reinforcement. Thus, for fast learning a continuous reinforcement schedule should be used. But once the individual has learned the new pattern, a switch to intermittent reinforcement should insure a long-lasting change.

CHANGE PROCESS--AN EXAMPLE

To see the change process in operation, several examples can be cited.

A college basketball coach recruited for his team Bob Anderson, a center six feet four inches tall from a small town in a rural area. In his district, six feet four inches was good height for a center. This fact, combined with his deadly turnaround jump shot, made Anderson the rage of his league and enabled him to average close to thirty points a game.

Recognizing that six feet four inches is small for a college center, the coach hoped that he could make Anderson a forward, moving him inside only when they were playing a double pivot. One of the things the coach was concerned about, though was how Anderson, when used in the pivot, could get his jump shot off when he came up against other players ranging in height from six feet eight inches to seven feet. He felt that Anderson would have to learn to shoot a hook shot, which is much harder to block, if he was going to have scoring potential against this kind of competition. The approach that many coaches use to solve this problem would probably be as follows: The first day of practice when Anderson arrived, the coach would welcome Anderson and would then explain the problem to him as he had analyzed it. As a solution he would probably ask Anderson to start to work with the varsity center, Steve Cram, who was six feet ten inches tall and had an excellent hook. "Steve can help you start working on that new shot, Bob," the coach would say. Anderson's reaction to this interchange might be one of resentment, and he would go over and work with Cram only because of the coach's position power. After all, he might think to himself,

"Who does he think he is? I've been averaging close to thirty points a game for three years now and the first day I show up here the coach wants me to learn a new shot." So he may start to work with Cram reluctantly, concentrating on the hook shot only when the coach is looking but taking his favorite jump shot when he is not observing him. Anderson is by no means unfrozen or ready to learn to shoot another way. Let us look at another approach the Coach could have used to solve his problem.

Suppose that on the first day of practice he sets up a scrimmage between the varsity and the freshmen. Before he starts the scrimmage he gets big Steve Cram, the varsity center, aside and tells him, "Steve, we have this new freshman named Anderson who has real potential to be a fine ball player. What I'd like you to do today, though, is not to worry about scoring or rebounding--just make sure every time Anderson goes up for a shot you make him eat it. I want him to see that he will have to learn to shoot some other shots if he is to survive against guys like you." So when the scrimmage starts, the first time Anderson gets the ball and turns around to shoot, Cram leaps up and "stuffs the ball right down his throat." Time after time this occurs. Soon Anderson starts to engage in some coping behavior, trying to fall away from the basket, shooting from the side of his head rather than from the front in an attempt to get his shot off. After the scrimmage, Anderson comes off the court dejected. The coach says, "What's wrong, Bob?" Bob replies, "I don't know Coach, I just can't seem to get my shot off against a man as big as Cram. What do you think I should do, Coach?" he asks. "Well, Bob, why don't you go over and start working with Steve on a hook shot. I think you'll find it much harder to block. And with your shooting eye I don't think it will take long for you to learn." How do you think Anderson feels about working with Cram now? He is enthusiastic

and ready to learn. Having been placed in a situation where he learns for himself that he has a problem has gone a long way in unfreezing Anderson from his past patterns of behavior and preparing him for making the attempt at identification. Now he is ready for identification. He has had an opportunity to internalize his problem and is ready to work with Steve Cram.

So often the leader who has knowledge of an existing problem forgets that until the people involved recognize the problem as their own, it is going to be much more difficult to produce change in their behavior. Internalization and identification are not either/or alternatives but can be parts of developing specific change strategies appropriate to the situation.

Another example of the change processes in operation can be seen in the military, particularly in the induction phase. There are probably few organizations that have entering their ranks people who are less motivated and committed to the organization than the recruits the military gets. And yet in a few short months they are able to mold these men into a relatively effective combat team. This is not an accident. Let us look at some of the processes that help accomplish this.

The most dramatic and harsh aspects of the training are the unfreezing phase. All four of the elements that Schein claims unfreezing situations have in common are present. Let us look at some specific examples of these elements in operation.

1. The recruits are PHYSICALLY REMOVED FROM THEIR ACCUSTOMED ROUTINES, SOURCES OF INFORMATION, AND SOCIAL RELATIONSHIPS in the isolation of Parris Island.

During the first week of training at Parris Island, the recruit is . . . hermetically sealed in a hostile environment, required to rise at 4:55 a.m., do exhausting exercises, attend classes on strange subjects, drill for hours in the hot sun, eat meals in silence and stand at rigid attention the rest of the time; he has no television, no radio, no candy, no coke, no beer, no telephone--and can write letters only during one hour of free time a day.

2. THE UNDERMINING AND DESTRUCTION OF SOCIAL SUPPORTS is one of the DI's (drill instructor's) tasks. "Using their voices and the threat of extra PT (psysical training), the DI . . . must shock the recruit out of the emotional stability of home, pool hall, street corner, girl friend or school."

3. DEMEANING AND HUMILIATING EXPERIENCES are commonplace during the first two weeks of the training as the DIs help the recruits SEE THEMSELVES AS UNWORTHY AND THUS MOTIVATED TO CHANGE into what they want a marine to be. "It's a total shock . . . Carrying full seabags, 80 terrified privates are herded into their "barn," a barracks floor with 40 double-decker bunds. Sixteen hours a day, for two weeks, they will do nothing right.

4. Throughout the training there is CONSISTENT LINKING OF REWARD WITH WILLINGNESS TO CHANGE AND OF PUNISHMENT WITH UNWILLINGNESS TO CHANGE.

Rebels or laggards are sent to the Motivation Platoon to get "squared away." A day at Motivation combines constant harassment and PT (psysical training), ending the day with the infiltration course. This hot, 225 yard ordeal of crawling, jumping and screaming through ditches and obstacles is climaxed by the recruit dragging two 30 pound ammo boxes 60 yards in mud and water. If he falters he starts again. At the end, the privates are lined up and asked if they are ready to go back to their home platoons . . . almost all go back for good.

While the recruits go through a severe unfreezing process, they quickly move to the changing phase, first identifying with the DI and then emulating informal leaders as they develop. "Toward the end of the third week a break occurs. What one DI calls 'that five per cent--the slow, fat, dumb, or difficult' have been dropped. The remaining recruits have emerged from their first week vacuum with one passionate desire--to stay with their platoon at all costs."

Internalization takes place when the recruits through their forced interactions develop different high strength needs. "Fear of the DI gives way to

respect, and survival evolves into achievement toward the end of training. 'I learned I had more guts than I imagined' is a typical comment."

Since the group tends to stay together throughout the entire program, it serves as a positive reinforces which can help refreeze the new behavior.

PROCESS SHEET TO FOLLOW RED/GREEN (COMPETITION) GAME

Fill in the following when the game is ended, and before you discuss the game with others.

My personal feelings toward the other groups are:

_____angry _____frustrated _____guilty _____sad

_____happy _____resentful _____other: _____

My personal feelings toward my own group are:

_____close _____happy _____sad

_____guilty _____resentful _____other: _____

My feelings toward myself are:

_____angry _____frustrated _____guilty _____sad

_____happy _____resentful _____other: _____

DISCUSS IN SMALL GROUPS

When everyone has finished the above check list and heard from the observers, meet with the other groups and discuss these questions:

1. What have you learned about trust and mistrust?

2. If you had the game to do over, would your strategy be to build trust or to use more subtle subterfuge?

3. If your goal were more trust, how might it be done?

4. What people or groups do you not trust in your work or home situation?

5. What did you learn about conflict and conflict management?

6. What did you learn about the leadership styles of people in the group? (including yourself!)

7. Are you in any way surprised by the feelings noticed in yourself and others?

8. What does this exercise have to do with change?

Some meetings seem to be a win-lose, competitive, we-they session with expected distortions of perceptions and mistrust that often accompanies a win-lose situation. While some persons seem neutral others seem caught in emotional responses which could typically lead towards choosing Approach A in the following paper.

> That may be the wisest course to follow. Sometimes another person or group does try to "put one over on you." It would be naive to believe that all persons or groups can be trusted.

However, often Approach B is more appropriate. If subsequent committee work indicates to you that it doesn't work, then you can switch - at any time of your choosing. Nobody can make you collaborate!

But, at least, let's understand the difference between a strategy of win-lose (distributive - Approach A) and a strategy of win-win (integrative-Approach B).

Even though many persons assume so, you don't have to fight every time there is conflict. Conflict itself is neither desirable but it can lead to results that are desirable or undesirable.

The following is adapted from The Reading Book of NTL-Institute for Applied Behavioral Science.

HOW TO CHOOSE BETWEEN STRATEGIES OF CONFLICT AND COLLABORATION

Distributive and Integrative Social Situation

Let us examine the factors that should influence our choice between strategies of conflict and collaboration, or competition and cooperation in various social situations. We will be especially interested in analyzing whether the model of collaboration can be applied to our work situations here.

We can distinguish between social situations of two types - distributive and integrative. The serious poker game is an example of a distributive social situation - what one person wins the other must lose. Several persons working together on a parlor jig-saw puzzle is an example of an integrative situation - persons integrating their resources toward a common task. We can contract other business situations: A buyer's interaction with a used car will be primarily distributional bargaining; whereas discussions with a fellow member of a research team may be largely an integrative process.

Alternate Modes of Behavior

Let us identify two familiar but opposite modes of behavior, which we may designate Approach A and Approach B.

APPROACH A	APPROACH B
1. Behavior is purposeful in pursuing own goals.	1. Behavior is purposeful, in pursuing goals held in common.
2. Secrecy	2. Openness
3. Accurate personal understanding of own needs, but publicly disguised or misrepresented, don't let them know what you really want most so that they won't know how much you are really willing to give up.	3. Accurate personal understanding of own needs; and accurate representation of them.
4. Unpredictable, mixed strategies utilizing the element of surprise.	4. Predictability while flexible behavior is appropriate; it is not designed to take other party by surprise.
5. Threats and bluffs.	5. Threats or bluffs are not used.
6. Search behavior is devoted to finding ways of appearing to become committed to a position; logical, non-rational and irrational arguments alike serve this purpose.	6. Search behavior is devoted to finding solutions to problems, utilizing logical and innovative processes.
7. Success is often enhanced (where teams, committees or organizations are involved on each side) by forming bad stereotypes of the other, by ignoring the other's logic, by increasing the other's hostility.	7. Success demands that stereotypes be dropped that ideas be given consideration on their merit regardless of sources and that hostility not be induced deliberately. In fact, positive feelings about others are both a cause and an effect of other aspects of Approach B.
8. Pathological extreme is when one assumes that everything that prevents others from reaching their goal also must facilitate one's own movement toward his goals; thus, one would state his own goals as being to negate goal achievement of others.	8. Pathological extreme is when one will assume that whatever is good for the others and groups is necessarily good for self. Cannot distinguish own identity from group's or other person's identity. Will not take responsibility for own sake.

The thesis being proposed is that Approach A is associated with what are assumed to be distributive social situations; and Approach B with integrative. We may, however, need to check our assumptions.

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Two things happen when groups shift their behavior from Approach A to B.

First, they have made the rational discovery that gaining personal and group goals is largely an integrative process. However, we didn't recognize a largely integrative game when we first saw it. For the first few meetings, people act often as if there was a limited amount of attention or prominence, and control and influence and as if they must hurry up and get their share. Not that those of us who held back in this period didn't also see the game this way - we just had a different strategy, namely to hold back while the others spent themselves. The paradox here is that as long as no one will accept another's incluence there is no influence, and no one's need to be influential is satisfied; later, when there is little competition for influence, all members exercise more influence. Members of the group can then collaborate to give individual feedback and to understand how groups function. Of course, in some groups competition continues to the bitter end.

Second, they have made the emotional adjustments to each other such that there is less personal need to "prove oneself" or to "defeat another". As long as the group is hung up with competition for attention and control very little genuine concern by anyone for anyone can develop or be shown.

Recognizing that Approach B is superior in some situations and Approach A in others, how do we decide? The answer to this lies in the objective nature of the back-home situations. Are they structured as primarily distributive or integrative situations?

Logical Determinants of the Social Situation

Considering a host of possible situations - engineering a new gadget, installing a new program, getting a new man assigned to your department, writing a staff report, delegating authority for a project, settling a grievance, negotiating a contract, dealing with a customer, dealing with a vendor, developing a marketing strategy - how can we tell whether the situation is logically distributive or integrative, so that one can select the appropriate methods? The key is the relationship of the goals of the two parties. Hence, the discriminating question: If one reaches his goals will the other in some degree be unable to reach his goal? If so, and to the extent that this is true, the parties are entered into a distributive situation. The extend to which goal achievement by one involves or leads to goal achievement by the other is the extent to which the game is integrative.

Now the problem with us in industry and education today may well be one of cynicism - we characteristically approach situations as if they were distributive even when they are not.

Similarly, the early decades of union-management relations were conducted in strictly win-lose manner, as if the whole thing were distributional bargaining - what labor gained management must lose, and vice versa. However, over time attitudes changed, parties began to wonder if, and hope that, the game might have some integrative aspects. And indeed they did.

This is not to suggest that no distributive element of labor relations persists, and therefore that no competitive mode of behavior remains appropriate. On the contrary, unions and managements do put different priorities on different goals.

Note the key role of attitudinal change as a factor permitting integrative behavior to substitute for distributive. The important thing is that the parties began to get to know each other and have some trust in each other (if not positive affect). Then they began to re-examine the situation to find its integrative aspects.

In diagnosing our back-home problems where we find that we have had to use Approach A, we can make three possible diagnoses:

1. First, that no real conflict exists, but it has been assumed that it does. That is, we may re-examine the logical aspects of the situation and discover that no real conflict of goals or competition reward structure exists. You may discover new integrative possibilities.

2. Second, there is no real conflict of goals, a fact that is already recognized by the parties involved, but that basic attitudes and interpersonal relations between them prevent collaboration to move toward their common goals or goal. Here, one must work directly on improving interpersonal relations, creating mutual trust and concern.

Steps which one can take toward this end include: (a) as a starter, accepting the position of the other in good faith; (b) if two antagonistic groups are involved, such as union and management committees or an operating department and the controller's department, break down the groups and assign two joint subcommittees which permit the individuals to inter-act face-to-face; (c) increase the amount of meetings spent on problem-solving rather than direct attempt to argue that differences are more apparent than real.

3. Third, we may discover that apparent goal conflict is significant and real. If we are only participants in a situation where the reward structure is determined by others we may have no choice but to adopt Approach A and play the distributive game.

<u>One Problem - The Mixed Social Situation or "Game".</u>

The preceding suggests an important source of our problems - we have to play <u>both the distributive and integrative games simultaneously</u>: for example, if you are a company negotiator facing the union, you must on the one hand try to keep the settlement nearer the lower end of the range set by industry patterns, knowing full well your counterpart in the union is an adversary with opposite intentions; and yet, on the other hand, you have to be able to explore with him solutions to the problems of seniority, job jurisdiction, retraining programs, etc. created by his need for job security and your need for production flexibility. To case the problem of the economic settlement wholly into an integrative model would be to risk a larger than necessary package. And to cast the problem of seniority provisions wholly into a distributive model would be to ignore whatever possibilities there are to meet his needs without corresponding sacrifice on your part, and vice versa.

The question is, what are the problems of being engaged with the other in both distributive and integrative games? Playing the distributive game creates a "win-lose" complex with the following consequences, each of which makes problem solving with the same individuals more difficult:

1. "We-they" and superiority-inferiority" complexes. Individual factions or groups under competitive pressure invariably rate themselves "above average" in both cohesion and ability.

2. Distortions in judgement. Individuals and groups under competitive pressure invariably evaluate their own contributions as best, and fall into downgrading efforts of others.

3. Distortions in perception. Experiments demonstrate that under competitive pressures persons perceive that they understand the other's proposal when in fact they do not. Consequently areas shared in common are likely to go unrecognized.

Another Problem

One person may approach every situation as if it were a distributive game; e.g. he will transform every discussion into a debate. Another person will approach every situation as if it were the integrative game. An older gentleman I knew very well was such a person; e.g., he even saw selling his house in that light, and was severely taken advantage of. Another will tend to see the objective reality of the situation, and choose approaches that are appropriate. The first type is called cynical, the second naive, and the third realistic.

With respect to group function the cooperative social situation (integrative game) produces more of the following behavior than did the competitive social situation (distributive game)

a. Coordination of efforts.
b. Sub-division of activity.
c. Achievement pressure.
d. Number of communication acts.
e. Attentiveness to fellow members.
f. Mutual comprehension of communication.
g. Common appraisals of communication.
h. Orientation and orderliness.
i. Productivity per unit of time.
j. Better quality of product and discussion.
k. Friendliness during discussion.
l. More group functions (whereas competitive showed more individual functions.)
m. Pride in group (coming after first integrative success).

About a problem-solving collaborative process.

Yes, it will be slow. (But not necessarily slower than a win-lose approach).
Yes, it may fail. (So may the other - it may be lose-loss.)
It will distinguish action proposals, from goals, issues, opinions, and fact.
It will demand clarification of some definitions.
It will encourage gathering of facts.
It will mean small sub-group work in the committee rather than just work with the total committee gathered.
Of course, there will be disagreements and irritation.
Conflict is inevitable - hopefully, it will have desirable results for us.
During the early stages the outcome will not be clear and it may be discouraging.
And finally, it will encourage our working for consensus* rather than majority.

[1]Some of these consequences and others are reported on in R. R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton's: "Reactions to Intergroup Competition Under Win-Lose Conditions," Management Science, July, 1961.

[2]Cartwright and Zander, eds. Group Dynamics, 2nd edition.

*I've appointed a statement about consensus by Benjamin Franklin.

MANAGING INTERGROUP CONFLICT

A total organization is really a composite of its various working units or groups. The important thing for organizational accomplishment, whether these groups be formal or informal, is that these groups either perceive their goals as being the same as the goals of the organization or, although different, see their own goals being satisfied as a direct result of working for the goals of the organization.

On occasion groups or parts of an organization come into conflict. The atmosphere between groups can affect the total productivity of the organization. According to Schein,

> this problem exists because as groups become more committed to their own goals and norms, they are likely to become competitive with one another and seek to undermine their rivals' activities, thereby becoming a liability to the organization as a whole. The overall problem, then, is how to establish high-productive, collaborative intergroup relations.

Consequences of group competition

Sherif was the first to study systematically the consequences of intergroup conflict. His original studies and more recent replications have found the effects of competition on individuals quite consistent to the extent that they can readily be described. As Schein reports, some interesting phenomena occur both within and between each competing group.

During competition, each group becomes more cohesive; internal differences are forgotten for the moment as increased loyalty takes over. The group atmosphere becomes more task-oriented as group accomplishment becomes paramount. The leadership shifts more toward an autocratic style as the group becomes more tolerant of someone taking the lead. The group becomes more organized and highly

structured, and with this demands more loyalty and conformity from its members in order to present a "solid front."

At the same time that these phenomena are occurring within the group the relationship between the groups has some common characteristic. Each group starts to see the other as the enemy and distorts perceptions of reality--recognizing only their own strengths and the weaknesses of the other group. Hostility toward the other group increases, while communication decreases. This makes it easier to maintain negative feelings and more difficult to correct false perceptions. If the groups are forced to interact, as at a bargaining table, neither one really listens to the other but only listens for cues that support its arguments.

Schein stresses that while competition and the responses it generates may be very useful to a group in making it more effective and achievement-motivated, "the same factors which improve intragroup effectiveness may have negative consequences for intergroup effectiveness." Labor-management disputes are cases in point because the more these parties perceive themselves as competitors, the more difficult they find it to resolve their differences.

When win-lose confrontations occur between two groups or teams, even though there eventually is a winner, the loser (if it is not a clear-cut win) is not convinced that he lost, and intergroup tension is higher than before the competition began. If the win is clear-cut, the winner often loses his edge, becomes complacent, and is less interested in goal accomplishment. The loser in this case often develops internal conflict while trying to discover the cause of the loss or someone to blame. If reevaluation takes place, however, the group may reorganize and become more cohesive and effective.

When the negative consequences of intergroup conflict outweigh the gains,

management seeks ways to reduce this intergroup tension. As Schein suggests, "the basic strategy of reducing conflict, therefore, is to find goals upon which groups can agree and to re-establish valid communication between the group." He contends that this strategy can be implemented by any combination of the following: locating a common enemy, inventing a negotiation strategy which brings subgroups of the competing groups into interaction with each other, and locating a superordinate goal.

Preventing Intergroup Conflict

Since it is difficult to reduce intergroup conflict once it has developed, it may be desirable to prevent its occurrence in the first place. This might be done in several ways. First of all, management should emphasize the contributions to total goals rather than the accomplishment of subgroup goals. Second, an attempt should be made to increase the frequency of communication and interaction between groups and develop a reward system for groups who help each other. Third, where possible individuals should be given experiences in a wide range of departments to broaden their base for empathy and understanding of intergroup problems.

Collaborative organizations often appear to have an abundance of task relevant conflict which improves overall effectiveness. This may occur because under these conditions individuals trust each other and are frank and open in sharing information and ideas. In competitive situations characterized by win-lose confrontations, observations may suggest lower levels of open conflict, since total interaction is significantly less and each group is committed to withholding its resources and information from the other groups, thus lowering the potential for overall organizational effectiveness.

CONSULTING ALTERNATIVES

A consultant/change agent is generally in a leadership position. Much like the leader, the consultant has a variety of alternative consulting behaviors. The leaders traditional continuum varied from Authoritarian to Democratic to Laissez Faire. In a consulting continuum much the same type of alternative variance exists.

In order to see the continuum of consulting behavior, Lippit and Nadler in "Emerging Roles of the Training Director" identified eight basic alternatives. The professional consultant must select the degree of directive consultation he feels will best fit the situation he is involved in. Each of the following alter-alternatives is appropriate at some time:

ADVOCATE

Position 1: Persuades Client as to a Proper Approach

In certain circumstances the client system may be attempting to solve a problem or effect a change by using a medium or a method which the change agent, from his professional experience, feels will not work. The change specialist may need to use the best of his persuasive skills, especially if time is short, to persuade the client not to use that particular approach. There is a time to be emphatically an advocate.

EXPERT

Position 2: Gives Expert Advice to Client System

There will be numerous occasions when the client will expect the change specialist

to answer a technical question; e.g., the value of a certain kind of development process.

TRAINER

Position 3: Trainer of the Client System

In this situation we will find that the change agent will provide a learning experience for the client system on a one-to-one basis, a group basis, or perhaps an organization renewal program. This is where the consultant becomes an educator. In the larger context, the consultant is to some extent always educating in a variety of his functions, but in this particular context he is the planner of an educational experience that has built into it precise learning goals and objectives.

ALTERNATIVE IDENTIFIER

Position 4: Provides Alternatives to Client System

In these circumstances we find that the change agent may offer alternative solutions to a problem. Such a situation is not one in which the consultant is the implementer of a solution, but one where he recognizes the values of identifying alternative ways to confront the change situation.

COLLABORATOR

Position 5: Collaborator in Problem-Solving

There will be times when the client system and the consultant will be working together as a pair, as a group, or as members of an organization for a community. There are times when the change agent becomes a full-fledged participants of the change situation. This is seen by some behavioral scientists as tending to destroy the consultant-client system relationship, but in many situations this kind of joint membership is a valid and valuable role in initiating and implementing change.

PROCESS SPECIALIST

Position 6: Assist in Problem-Solving Process

In this situation the change agent serves in his consultant role as a "process observer". He does not get involved in the "content" of the problem, which may be outside his area of competence. Rather, he helps the client system maintain the quality of its problem-solving processes through his skill as a change specialist.

FACT FINDER

Position 7: Fact Finder

One of the key roles of a change agent is to be a fact finder, and this may include data collection about the client's system through interviewing, questionnaires, surveys, or observations. In other cases, it may be helping a client's system collect data for itself. This might be assisting the client's system, among other things, in how to observe, how to develop questionnaires, or how to interview.

REFLECTOR

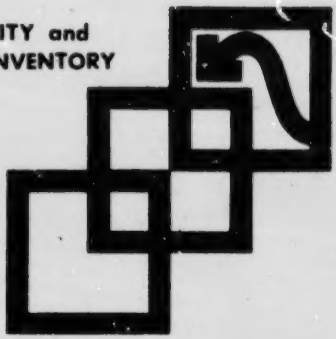
Position 8: Serves as Catalyst to the Client System

In this last category, the change agent might only ask questions for the client system to take into account as it considers a certain change effort.

Does this kind of professional change agent need to have specific qualifications? Must he be an applied behavioral scientist? Does he need to be an expert on communication? On systems? Does he have to be so courageous or personally active in initiating change, perhaps at his own risk, that unusual psychological maturity is required? The answer to each of these questions is, YES. Whenever responsible for initiating change, the change agent will need to manifest professional behavior and leadership.

LASI Self

LEADER ADAPTABILITY and STYLE INVENTORY



Assume you are involved in each of the following twelve situations. Each situation has four alternative actions you might initiate. READ each item carefully. THINK about what you would do in each circumstance. Then CIRCLE the letter of the alternative action choice which you think would most closely describe your behavior in the situation presented. Circle only *one choice*.

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1

SITUATION

Your subordinates are not responding lately to your friendly conversation and obvious concern for their welfare. Their performance is in a tailspin.

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

A. Emphasize the use of uniform procedures and the necessity for task accomplishment.
B. Make yourself available for discussion but don't push.
C. Talk with subordinates and then set goals.
D. Intentionally do not intervene.

2

SITUATION

The observable performance of your group is increasing. You have been making sure that all members were aware of their roles and standards.

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

A. Engage in friendly interaction, but continue to make sure that all members are aware of their roles and standards.
B. Take no definite action.
C. Do what you can to make the group feel important and involved.
D. Emphasize the importance of deadlines and tasks.

3

SITUATION

Members of your group are unable to solve a problem themselves. You have normally left them alone. Group performance and interpersonal relations have been good.

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

A. Involve the group and together engage in problem-solving.
B. Let the group work it out.
C. Act quickly and firmly to correct and redirect.
D. Encourage group to work on problem and be available for discussion.

4

SITUATION

You are considering a major change. Your subordinates have a fine record of accomplishment. They respect the need for change.

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

A. Allow group involvement in developing the change, but don't push.
B. Announce changes and then implement with close supervision.
C. Allow group to formulate its own direction.
D. Incorporate group recommendations, but you direct the change.

5

SITUATION

The performance of your group has been dropping during the last few months. Members have been unconcerned with meeting objectives. Redefining roles has helped in the past. They have continually needed reminding to have their tasks done on time.

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

A. Allow group to formulate its own direction.
B. Incorporate group recommendations, but see that objectives are met.
C. Redefine goals and supervise carefully.
D. Allow group involvement in setting goals, but don't push.

6

SITUATION

You stepped into an efficiently run situation. The previous administrator ran a tight ship. You want to maintain a productive situation, but would like to begin humanizing the enviroment.

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

A. Do what you can to make group feel important and involved.
B. Emphasize the importance of deadlines and tasks.
C. Intentionally do not intervene.
D. Get group involved in decision-making, but see that objectives are met.

7

SITUATION

You are considering major changes in your organizational structure. Members of the group have made suggestions about needed change. The group has demonstrated flexibility in its day-to-day operations.

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

A. Define the change and supervise carefully.
B. Acquire group's approval on the change and allow members to organize the implementation.
C. Be willing to make changes as recommended, but maintain control of implementation.
D. Avoid confrontation, leave things alone.

8

SITUATION

Group performance and interpersonal relations are good. You feel somewhat unsure about your lack of direction of the group.

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

A. Leave the group alone.
B. Discuss the situation with the group and then initiate necessary changes.
C. Take steps to direct subordinates toward working in a well-defined manner.
D. Be careful of hurting boss-subordinate relations by being too directive.

9

SITUATION

Your superior has appointed you to head a task force that is far overdue in making requested recommendations for change. The group is not clear on its goals. Attendance at sessions has been poor. Their meetings have turned into social gathering. Potentially they have the talent necessary to help.

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

A. Let the group work it out.
B. Incorporate group recommendations, but see that objectives are met.
C. Redefine goals and supervise carefully.
D. Allow group involvement in setting goals, but don't push.

10

SITUATION

Your subordinates, usually able to take responsibility, are not responding to your recent redefining of standards.

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

A. Allow group involvement in redefining standards, but don't push.
B. Redefine standards and supervise carefully.
C. Avoid confrontation by not applying pressure.
D. Incorporate group recommendations, but see that new standards are met.

11

SITUATION

You have been promoted to a new position. The previous supervisor was uninvolved in the affairs of the group. The group has adequately handled its tasks and direction. Group inter-relations are good.

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

A. Take steps to direct subordinates toward working in a well-defined manner.
B. Involve subordinates in decision-making and reinforce good contributions.
C. Discuss past performance with group and then you examine the need for new practices.
D. Continue to leave group alone.

12

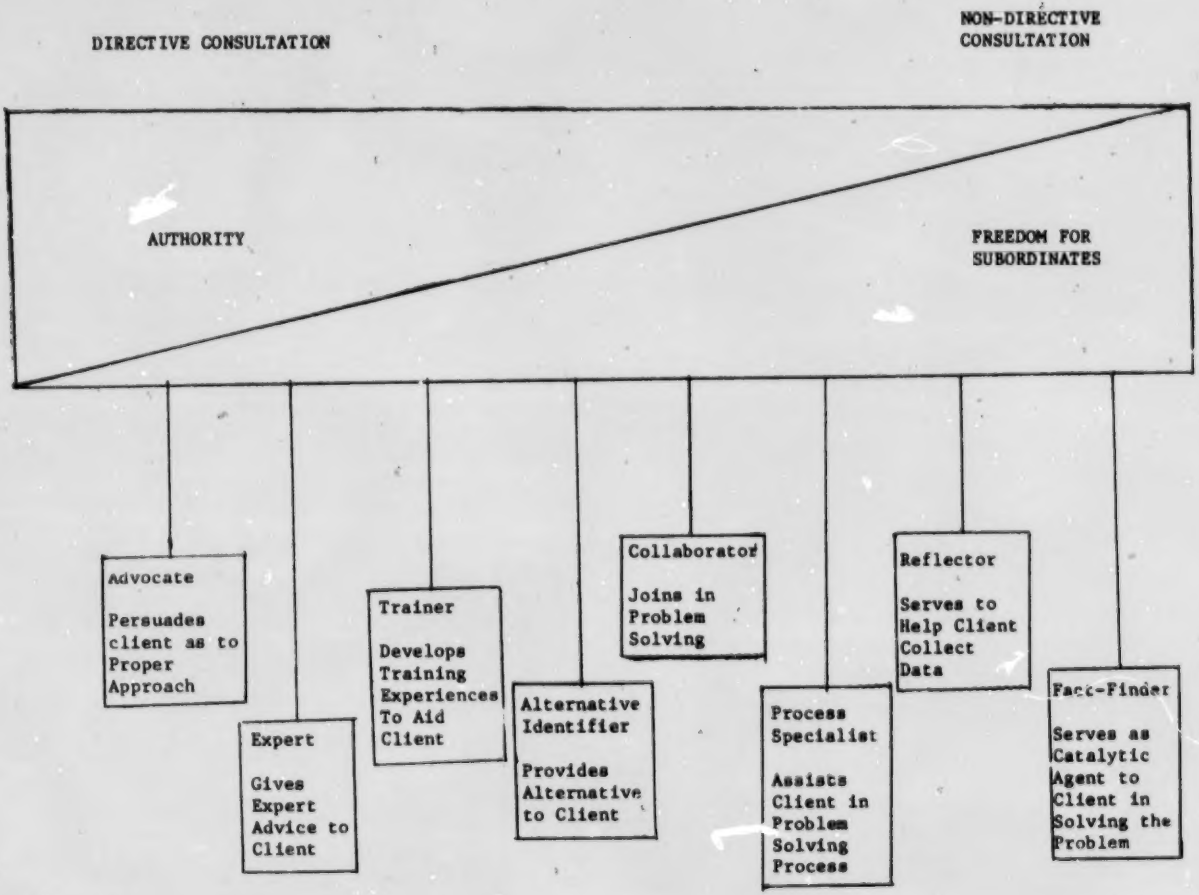
SITUATION

Recent information indicates some internal difficulties among subordinates. The group has a remarkable record of accomplishment. Members have effectively maintained long range goals. They have worked in harmony for the past year. All are well qualified for the task.

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

A. Try out your solution with subordinates and examine the need for new practices.
B. Allow group members to work it out themselves.
C. Act quickly and firmly to correct and redirect.
D. Make yourself available for discussion, but be careful of hurting boss-subordinate relations.

MULTIPLE CONSULTING APPROACHES OF CHANGE AGENT



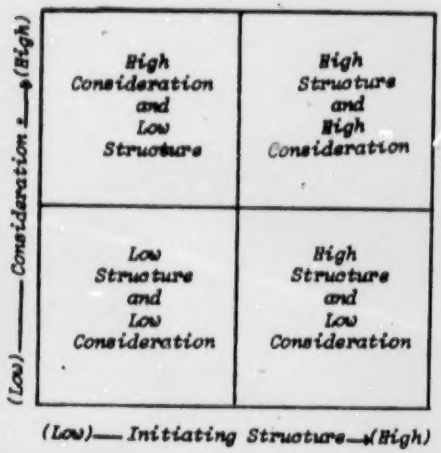
Ohio State leadership studies.

The leadership studies initiated in 1945 by the Bureau of Business Research at Ohio State University attempted to identify various dimensions of leader behavior. The staff, defining leadership as the behavior of an individual when he is directing the activities of a group toward a goal attainment, eventually narrowed the description of leader behavior to two dimensions: Initiating Structure and Consideration. Initiating Structure refers to "the leader's behavior in delineating the relationship between himself and members of the work-group and in endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedure." On the other hand, Consideration refers to "behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and the members of his staff."

To gather data about the behavior of leaders, the Ohio State staff developed the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ), an instrument designed to describe how a leader carries out his activities. The LBDQ contains fifteen items pertaining to Consideration and an equal number for Initiating Structure. Respondents judge the frequency with which their leader engages in each form of behavior by checking one of five descriptions--always, often, occasionally, seldom, or never--as it relates to each particular item of the LBDQ. Thus Consideration and Initiating Structure are dimensions of observed behavior as perceived by others. Examples of items used in the LBDQ for both these dimensions are given on the following page.

Consideration	Initiating Structure
The leader finds time to listen to group members	The leader assigns group members to particular tasks
The leader is willing to make changes	The leader asks the group members to follow standard rules and regulations
The leader is friendly and approachable	The leader lets group members know what is expected of them

In studying leader behavior the Ohio State staff found that Initiating Structure and Consideration were separate and distinct dimensions. High on one dimension does not necessitate being low on the other. The behavior of a leader could be described as any mix of both dimensions. Thus it was during these studies that leader behavior was first plotted on two separate axes rather than on a single continuum. Four quadrants were developed to show various combinations of Initiating Structure (task behavior) and Consideration (relationships behavior), as illustrated in the following figure.


High Consideration and Low Structure
High Structure and High Consideration
Low Structure and Low Consideration
High Structure and Low Consideration
(Low) Consideration (High)
(Low) Initiating Structure (High)

The Ohio State leadership quadrants

T-P LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE

Name _____ Group _____

The following items describe aspects of leadership behavior. Respond to each item according to the way you would be most likely to act if you were the leader of a work group. Circle whether you would be likely to behave in the described way always (A), frequently (F), occasionally (O), seldom (S), or never (N).

If I were the leader of a work group . . .

A	F	O	S	N	1.	I would most likely act as the spokesman of the group.
A	F	O	S	N	2.	I would encourage overtime work.
A	F	O	S	N	3.	I would allow members complete freedom in their work.
A	F	O	S	N	4.	I would encourage the use of uniform procedures.
A	F	O	S	N	5.	I would permit the members to use their own judgment in solving problems.
A	F	O	S	N	6.	I would stress being ahead of competing groups.
A	F	O	S	N	7.	I would speak as a representative of the group.
A	F	O	S	N	8.	I would needle members for greater effort.
A	F	O	S	N	9.	I would try out my ideas in the group.
A	F	O	N	N	10.	I would let the members do their work the way they think best.
A	F	O	S	N	11.	I would be working hard for a promotion.
A	F	O	S	N	12.	I would be able to tolerate postponement and uncertainty.
A	F	O	S	N	13.	I would speak for the group when visitors were present.
A	F	O	S	N	14.	I would keep the work moving at a rapid pace.
A	F	O	S	N	15.	I would turn the members loose on a job, and let them go to it.

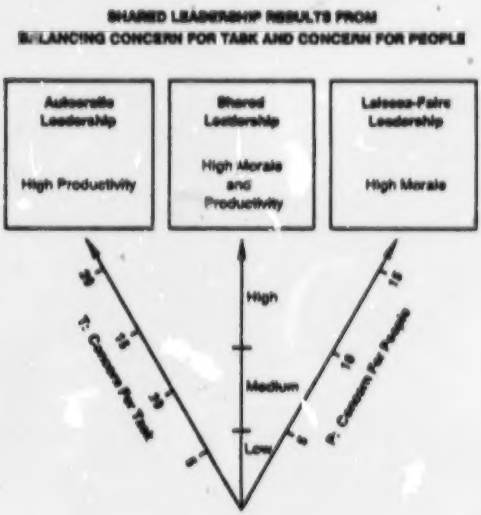
A	P	O	S	N	16.	I would settle conflicts when they occur in the group.
A	P	O	S	N	17.	I would get swamped by details.
A	P	O	S	N	18.	I would represent the group at outside meetings.
A	P	O	S	N	19.	I would be reluctant to allow the members any freedom of action.
A	P	O	S	N	20.	I would decide what shall be done and how it shall be done.
A	P	O	S	N	21.	I would push for increased production.
A	P	O	S	N	22.	I would let some members have authority which I should keep.
A	P	O	S	N	23.	Things would usually turn out as I predict.
A	P	O	S	N	24.	I would allow the group a high degree of initiative.
A	P	O	S	N	25.	I would assign group members to particular tasks.
A	P	O	S	N	26.	I would be willing to make changes.
A	P	O	S	N	27.	I would trust the group members to exercise good judgment.
A	P	O	S	N	28.	I would ask the members to work harder.
A	P	O	S	N	29.	I would schedule the work to be done.
A	P	O	S	N	30.	I would refuse to explain my actions.
A	P	O	S	N	31.	I would persuade others that my ideas are to their advantage.
A	P	O	S	N	32.	I would permit the group to set its own pace.
A	P	O	S	N	33.	I would urge the group to beat its previous record.
A	P	O	S	N	34.	I would act without consulting the group.
A	P	O	S	N	35.	I would ask that group members follow standard rules and regulations.

T_____ P_____

T-P LEADERSHIP-STYLE PROFILE SHEET

Name_____ Group_____

Directions: To determine your style of leadership, mark your score on the concern for task dimension (T) on the left-hand arrow below. Next, move to the right-hand arrow and mark your score on the concern for people dimension (P). Draw a straight line that intersects the P and T scores. The point at which that line crosses the shared leadership arrow indicates your score on that dimension.



T-P LEADERSHIP SCORING INSTRUCTIONS

IV. The facilitator instructs the participants in the scoring as follows:

Participants Score T-P Leadership Questionnaire as Follows:

1. Circle the item number for items 8, 12, 17, 18, 19, 30, 34, and 35.

2. Write the number 1 in front of a circled item number if you responded S (seldom) or N (never) to that item.

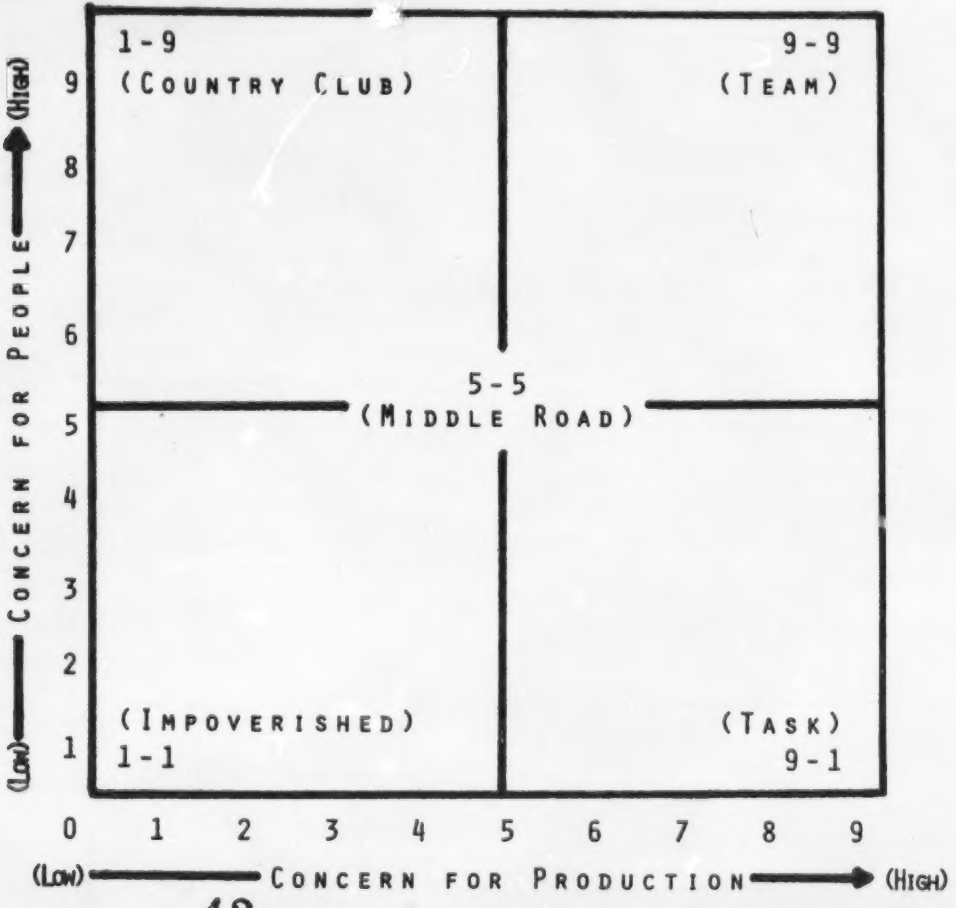
3. Also write a number 1 in front of item numbers not circled you responded A (always) or F (frequently).

4. Circle the number 1's which you have written in front of the following items: 3, 5, 8, 10, 15, 18, 19, 22, 24, 26, 28, 30, 32, 34, and 35.

5. Count the circled number 1's. This is your score for concern for people. Record the score in the blank following the letter P at the end of the questionnaire.

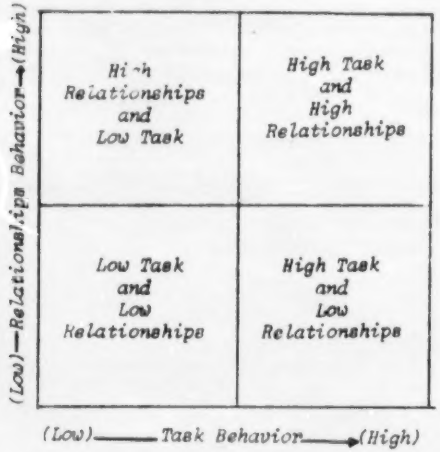
6. Count the uncircled number 1's. This is your score for concern for task. Record this number in the blank following the letter T.

THE MANAGERIAL GRID LEADERSHIP STYLES



THE TRI-DIMENSIONAL LEADER EFFECTIVENESS MODEL

In the Tri-Dimensional Leader Effeciveness model which we will be discussing, the terms task behavior and relationships behavior will be used to describe the same concepts that the Ohio State studies defined as Consideration and Initiating Structure. The four basic leader behavior quadrants will be labeled as high task and low relationships, high task and high relationships, high relationships and low task, and low task and low relationships, as illustrated in the following figure.


(Low)—Relationships Behavior→(High)
High Relationships and Low Task
High Task and High Relationships
Low Task and Low Relationships
High Task and Low Relationships
(Low)——Task Behavior——→(High)

The basic leader behavior styles.

These four basic styles depict essentially leader personalities. As an individual matures he develops habit patterns or conditioned responses to various stimuli.

habit a, habit b, habit c, . . . , habit n = personality

An individual begins to behave in a similar fashion under similar conditions. This behavior is what others learn to recognize as that person, as his personality. They expect and can even predict certain kinds of behavior from him.

IMMATURITY-MATURITY THEORY

Even though management based on the assumptions of Theory X is perhaps no longer appropriate in the opinion of McGregor and others, it is still widely practiced. Consequently, a large majority of the people in the United States today are treated as immature human beings in their working environments. It is this fact that has produced many of our current organizational problems. Chris Argyris, while at Yale University, examined industrial organizations to determine what effect management practices have had on individual behavior and personal growth within the work environment.

According to Argyris, seven changes should take place in the personality of an individual if he is to develop into a mature person over the years.

First, an individual moves from a passive state as an infant to a state of increasing activity as an adult. Second, an individual develops from a state of dependency upon others as an infant to a state of relative independence as an adult. Third, an individual behaves in only a few ways as an infant, but as an adult, he is capable of behaving in many ways. Fourth, an individual has erratic, casual, and shallow interests as an infant but develops deeper and stronger interests as an adult. Fifth, a child's time perspective is very short, involving only the present, but as he matures, his time perspective increases to include the past and the future. Sixth, an individual as an infant is subordinate to everyone, but he moves to equal or superior position with others as an adult. Seventh, as a child, an individual lacks an awareness of

a "self," but as an adult, he is not only aware of, but he is able to control "self." Argyris postulates that these changes reside on a continuum and that the "healthy" personality develops along the continuum from "immaturity" to "maturity."

Table 1 Immaturity-maturity continuum.

IMMATURITY		MATURITY
Passive	----------	Active
Dependence	----------	Independence
Behave in a few ways	----------	Capable of behaving in many ways
Erratic shallow interests	----------	Deeper and stronger interests
Short time perspective	----------	Long time perspective (past and future)
Subordinate position	----------	Equal or superordinate position
Lack of awareness of self	----------	Awareness and control over self

These changes are only general tendencies, but they give some light to the matter of maturity. Norms of the individual's culture and personality inhibit and limit maximum expression and growth of the adult, yet the tendency is to move toward the "maturity" end of the continuum with age. Argyris would be the first to admit that few, if any, develop to full maturity.

In examining the widespread worker apathy and lack of effort in industry, Argyris questions whether these problems are simply the result of individual laziness. He suggests that this is not the case. Argyris contends that, in many cases, when people join the work force, they are kept from maturing by the management practices utilized in their organizations. In these organizations, they are given minimal control over their environment and are encouraged to be passive, dependent, and subordinate; therefore, they behave immaturely. The worker in many organizations is expected to act in immature ways rather than as a mature adult.

According to Argyris, keeping people immature is built into the very nature of the formal organization. He argues that because organizations are usually created to achieve goals or objectives that can best be met collectively, the formal organization is often the architect's conception of how these objectives may be achieved. In this sense the individual is fitted to the job. The design comes first. This design is based upon four concepts of scientific management: task specialization, chain of command, unity of direction, and span of control. Management tries to increase and enhance organizational and administrative efficiency and productivity by making workers "interchangeable parts."

Basic to these concepts is that power and authority should rest in the hands of a few at the top of the organization, and thus those at the lower end of the chain of command are strictly controlled by their superiors or the system itself. Task specialization often results in the oversimplification of the job so that is becomes repetitive, routine, and unchallenging. This implies directive, task-oriented leadership where decisions about the work are made by the superior, with the workers only carrying out those decisions. This type of leadership evokes managerial controls such as budgets, some incentive systems, time and motion studies, and standard operating procedures which can restrict the initiative and creativity of workers.

Argyris feels that these concepts of formal organization lead to assumptions about human nature that are incompatible with the proper development of maturity in human personality. He sees a definite incongruity between the needs of a mature personality and the formal organizations as they now exist. Since he implies that the classical theory of management (based on Theory X assumptions) usually prevails, management creates childlike roles for workers that frustrate natural development.

An example of how work is often designed at this extremely low level was dramatically illustrated by the successful use of mentally retarded workers in such jobs. Argyris cites two instances, one in a knitting mill and the other in a radio manufacturing corporation in which mentally retarded people were successfully employed on unskilled jobs. In both cases, the managers praised these workers for their excellent performance. In fact, a manager in the radio corporation reported:

> The girls proved to be exceptionally well-behaved, particularly obedient, and strictly honest and trustworthy. They carried out work required of them to such a degree of efficiency that we were surprised they were classed as subnormals for their age. Their attendance was good, and their behavior was, if anything, certainly better than that of any other employee of the same age.

Disturbed by what he finds in many organizations, Argyris, as did McGregor, challenges management to provide a work climate in which everyone has a chance to grow and mature as an individual, as a member of a group by satisfying his own needs, while working for the success of the organization. Implicit here is the belief that man can be basically self-directed and creative at work if properly motivated, and, therefore, management based on the assumption of Theory Y will be more profitable for the individual and the organization.

More and more companies are starting to listen to the challenge that Argyris is directing at management. For example, the president of a large company asked Argyris to show him how to better motivate his workers. Together they went into one of his production plants where a product similar to a radio was being assembled. There were twelve girls involved in assembling the product, each doing a small segment of the job as designed by an industrial engineer. The group also had a foreman, an inspector, and a packer.

Argyris proposed a one-year experiment during which each of the girls would assemble the total product in a manner of her own choice. At the same time they would inspect, sign their name to the product, pack it, and handle any correc-

pondence involving complaints about it. The girls were assured that they would receive no cut in pay if production dropped but would receive more pay if production increased.

Once the experiment began, production dropped 70 percent during the first month. By the end of six weeks it was even worse. The girls were upset, morale was down. This continued until the eighth week, when production started to rise. By the end of the fifteenth week production was higher than it had ever been before. And this was without an inspector, a packer, or an industrial engineer. More important than increased productivity, costs due to errors and waste decreased 94 percent; letters of complaint dropped 96 percent.

Experiments like this are being duplicated in numerous other situations. It is being found over and over again that broadening individual responsibility is beneficial to both the workers and the company. Giving people the opportunity to grow and mature on the job helps them satisfy more than just physiological and safety needs, which, in turn, motivates them and allows them to use more of their potential in accomplishing organizational goals. While all workers do not want to accept more responsibility or deal with the added problems responsibility inevitably brings, Argyris contends that the number of employees whose motivation can be improved by increasing and upgrading their responsibility is much larger than most managers would suspect.

ARGYRIS' FINDINGS REMIND US AGAIN HOW IMPORTANT DIAGNOSIS IS IN LEADERSHIP SITUATIONS. SOME PRELIMINARY GUIDES TO DIAGNOSIS ARE LISTED BELOW:

1. *CAPACITY TO SET HIGH BUT ATTAINABLE GOALS*

An astute leader must be able to determine how capably an individual or group can perform this function, being keenly aware of the inefficiency of both low, attainable goals and high, unobtainable goals.

2. *WILLINGNESS TO TAKE RESPONSIBILITY*

3. *ABILITY TO TAKE RESPONSIBILITY*

These 2 criteria are obviously related. Some people are very willing, but lack the ability; while some people have an abundance of ability, but prefer not to take the responsibility. An astute leader must apply both of these criteria in determining the level of maturity.

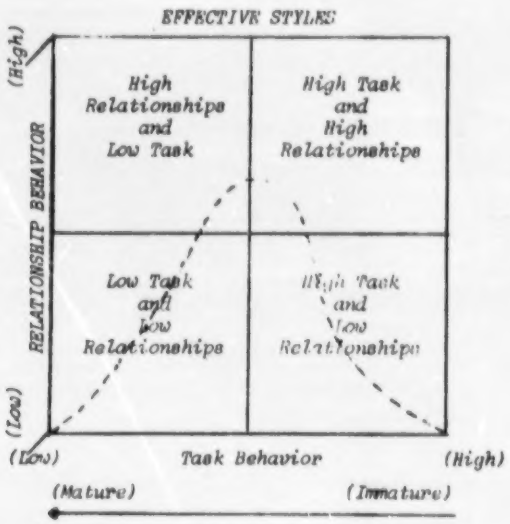
4. *TASK RELEVANT EDUCATION AND/OR EXPERIENCE*

A person may be mature in some things but immature in others. For example, an individual may be highly mature at managing a classroom, but a disaster at managing a budget. In the first case, low task leadership behavior would be appropriate. In the second, high task behavior would be necessary. Maturity level, then, is TASK SPECIFIC, and an astute leader must be aware of this.

LIFE CYCLE THEORY

Maturity

According to Life Cycle Theory, as the level of maturity of one's followers continues to increase, appropriate leader behavior not only requires less and less structure (task) while increasing consideration but should eventually entail decreases in socioemotional support (relationships). This cycle can be illustrated in the four quadrants of the basic styles portion of the 3-D Leader Effectiveness Model, as shown in the following figure.



Life Cycle Theory of Leadership.

Maturity is defined in Life Cycle Theory by achievement-motivation, the willingness and ability to take responsibility, and task relevant education

and experience of an individual or a group. These components of maturity are consistent with Chris Argyris's Immaturity-Maturity continuum where he contends that as a person matures over time he moves from a passive state to a state of increasing activity, from dependency on others to relative independence, and the like. While age may be a factor, it is not directly related to maturity as used in the Life Cycle. The concern here is for psychological age, not chronological age. Beginning with structured task behavior, which is appropriate for working with immature people, Life Cycle Theory suggests that leader behavior should move through (1) high task-low relationships behavior to (2) high task-high relationships and (3) high relationships-low task behavior to (4) low task-low relationships behavior, if one's followers progress from immaturity to maturity.

Parent-Child Relationship

An illustration of this Life Cycle Theory familiar to everyone is the parent-child relationship. As a child begins to mature, it is appropriate for the parent to provide less structure, giving the child an opportunity to increase his own responsibility. As the child increases his ability, this is reinforced by an increase in socioemotional support. Experience shows us that if the parent provides too much relationships before a child is somewhat mature, this behavior is often misinterpreted by the child as permissiveness. Thus, it is appropriate to decrease Structure as the child becomes able to increase his maturity or capacity to take responsibility and respond to mutual trust. Eventually, as the child moves toward adulthood, he will need less socioemotional support too as he begins to mature psychologically.

A child when first born is unable to control much of his own environment. Consequently, his parents must initiate almost all Structure, that is, dress the child, feed the child, bathe the child, turn the child over, and so forth. While it is appropriate for a parent to show love and affection toward a child, this is different from mutual trust and respect which characterize relationships behavior. Love is an attitude or a predisposition toward something. Even through there is a high degree of love, it may be appropriate for a parent to vary his behavior depending on the maturity of the child. Consequently, the most appropriate style for parents to use with their children during the early preschool years may be high task-low relationships (quadrant 1).

Even when the child begins to attend school, the parent must provide a great deal of structure. The child is still not mature enough to accept much responsibility on his own. It may become appropriate at this stage, as the child matures, for the parent to increase his relationships behavior by showing more trust and respect for his child. At this point the parent's behavior could be characterized as high task-high relationships (quadrant 2).

Gradually, as the child moves into high school and/or college, he begins to seek and accept more and more responsibility for his own behavior. At this time, a parent should begin to engage in less structured behavior and continue a relatively high level of socioemotional support (quadrant 3). This does not mean that the child's life will have less Structure, but it will now be internally imposed by the "young man" rather than externally imposed by the parent. When this happens in the cycle, not only is structure decreasing, but it also becomes appropriate to begin to cut the psychological umbilical cord with behavior heading toward quadrant 4. The child is now not only able to structure many of the activities in which he engages but also able to provide self-control in terms of his interpersonal and emotional needs.

As the child begins to make his own living, start his own family, and take full responsibility for his actions, a decrease in structure and socioemotional support by the parents becomes appropriate. In reality, the umbilical cord has been severed and the child is now "on his own." At this stage of the parent-child relationship, a low task-low relationships style seems to be most appropriate (quadrant 4).

In meeting specific contingencies that develop because of changes in maturity, it may be necessary to vary one's style anywhere within the four quadrants to deal appropriately with a particular event. For example when a young man is away at college, his parents' behavior would normally be considered high relationships. But if they discover that their son is not behaving in a mature a way as expected (he is a discipline problem for the university), it may be appropriate for them temporarily to change their behavior and initiate more structure with their son (spell out the behavior they expect and the consequences for non-performance) while decreasing their socioemotional support. Too much relationships behavior at this time may be interpreted by the young man as approval or support for his actions. However, once he begins to display more maturity again, it will be appropriate for his parents' behavior to move back through the cycle to high relationships behavior.

Appropriate or Inappropriate Styles.

First, let us look at some of the potential consequences of a parent using a high structure-low consideration style (quadrant 1) with his child throughout the developmental years, for example, "As long as you're living in this house, you'll be home at ten o'clock and abide by the rules I've set." Two predictions might be made. The first one is that the child will tend to pack his bag and leave home at the earliest opportunity. If this does not

occur, the child may succumb to his parents' authority and become a very passive, dependent person throughout his life, always needing someone to tell him "what to do" and "when to do it."

A high probability result of a parent using exclusively a style of extremely High Structure and socioemotional support (quadrant 2) might be called the "Mama's boy syndrome." Even when the child gets older, he may chronologically be an adult, but he is still psychologically dependent upon the parent to make decisions for him.

What happens when a parent only engages in high Consideration behavior but never structures any of his child's activities? The response to this style may be a "spoiled brat" as a child and a person who has little regard for rules and regulations or consideration for the rights of others as an adult.

A style of Low Structure and low socioemotional support (quadrant 4) seems to be characteristic of two of the socioeconomic classifications described by Lloyd Warner, the upper-upper level and the lower-lower level. In both cases the child may become a product of his environment rather than a product of the parent's style itself. In the case of the upper-upper level, this responsibility may be delegated to a private school, while in the case of the lower-lower level, the child is often left on his own and learns to cope with the day-to-day contingencies of his environment.

The parent-child relationship is only one example of the Life Cycle Theory of Leadership. This cycle is also discernible in other organizations in the interaction between superiors and subordinates.

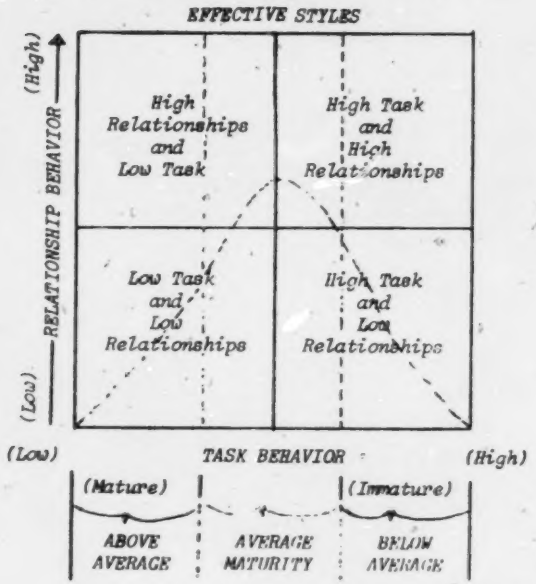
HOW THE BASIC LEADER BEHAVIOR STYLES ARE SEEN BY OTHERS

Basic Styles	Effective	Ineffective
High Task and Low Relationships	Often seen as knowing what he wants and imposing his methods for accomplishing this without creating resentment.	Often seen as having no confidence in others, unpleasant, and interested only in short-run output.
High Task and High Relationships	Often seen as satisfying the needs of the group for setting goals and organizing work, but also providing high levels of socioemotional support.	Often seen as initiating more structure than is needed by the group and spends more time on socioemotional support than necessary.
High Relationships and Low Task	Often seen as having implicit trust in people and as being primarily concerned with developing their talents.	Often seen as primarily interested in harmony and being seen as "a good person," and being unwilling to risk disruption of a relationship to accomplish a task.
Low Task and Low Relationships	Often seen as appropriately permitting his subordinates to decide how the work should be done and playing only a minor part in their social interaction.	Often seen as uninvolved and passive, as a "paper shuffler," who cares little about the task at hand or the people involved.

DIFFERING LEVELS OF MATURITY

By dividing the maturity continuum of the Life Cycle into three levels--below average, average, and above average--some bench marks or degrees of maturity, as illustrated in the following figure can be provided for determining appropriate leadership style.

Life Cycle Theory of Leadership postulates that when working with people of below average maturity, a high task style (quadrant 1) has the best probability of success; whereas in dealing with people of average maturity, the style of quadrants 2 and 3 appear to be most appropriate; and quadrant 4 has the highest probability of success with people of above average maturity.



Maturity levels.

LASI Self

LEADER ADAPTABILITY and STYLE INVENTORY

Directions for Self Scoring and Analysis

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LEADER ADAPTABILITY AND STYLE INVENTORY

DIRECTIONS FOR SCORING

Circle the letter that you have chosen for each situation on the same line to the right, under Column I (STYLE RANGE) and also Column II (STYLE ADAPTABILITY). After you have circled alternative actions, total the number of circles for each sub-column under Column I (STYLE RANGE) and Column II (STYLE ADAPTABILITY) and enter totals in the spaces provided below.

SITUATIONS	COLUMN I (Style Range) Alternative Actions				COLUMN II (Style Adaptability) Alternative Actions			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
1	A	C	B	D	D	B	C	A
2	D	A	C	B	B	D	C	A
3	C	A	D	B	C	B	A	D
4	B	D	A	C	B	D	A	C
5	C	B	D	A	A	D	B	C
6	B	D	A	C	C	A	B	D
7	A	C	B	D	A	C	D	B
8	C	B	D	A	C	B	D	A
9	C	B	D	A	A	D	B	C
10	B	D	A	C	B	C	A	D
11	A	C	B	D	A	C	D	B
12	C	A	D	B	C	A	D	B
Sub-columns	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)

Multiply by				
(a) -2	(b) -1	(c) +1	(d) +2	
[ ] +	[ ] +	[ ] +	[ ] =	TOTAL

Processing Data from Column I (Style Range)

Sub-column totals from Column I (Style Range) can be located on the basic styles, (the middle portion) of the Tri-Dimensional Leader Effectiveness Model[1] to the right. The column numbers correspond to the quadrant numbers of the leadership model as follows:

Sub-column (1) – alternative action choices describe (Quadrant 1), High Task/Low Relationships Behavior.

Sub-column (2) – alternative action choices describe (Quadrant 2), High Task/High Relationships Behavior.

Sub-column (3) – alternative action choices describe (Quadrant 3), High Relationships/Low Task Behavior.

Sub-column (4) – alternative action choices describe (Quadrant 4), Low Task/Low Relationships Behavior.

Enter the totals associated with each of the four basic leadership styles in the boxes provided on the leadership model to the right.

Processing Data from Column II (Style Adaptability)

Multiply the totals entered in sub-columns (a), (b), (c), and (d) to the left by the positive and negative factors in the same sub-columns. Enter the product in the space provided directly below. (Be sure to include pluses and minuses.) Then Add all four figures and record the sum in the box designated TOTAL.

Then place an arrow (↖) at the corresponding number along the ineffective or effective dimension of the leadership model to the right.